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ABSTRACT

This review of guidance and counseling research includes reports of hypothesis testing based on hard data and behavioral analysis designs, reports of surveys and evaluations, and comments and recommenda- tions from reflections on experience and survey findings. The materials, originating from New Zealand between 1970 and 1979, are classified on the topics of: historical studies; surveys; service descriptions; personnel role descriptions; empirical studies of educational guidance, vocational guidance, vocational and social adjustments of exceptional children, and behavioral technology in the classroom; principles of counseling and vocational guidance; career programs; recommendations of behavioral approaches for special needs groups; social skills instruction; parent counseling; community counseling; directories of community resources; measurement; consultation; and evaluation. An extensive bibliography is also included. (NRB)

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Guidance and Counselling Research in New Zealand

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An obvious first step in this paper is the general one of suggesting definitions, making stipulations, and setting boundaries. These preliminaries are needed in order to answer three questions: What is to count as research? What is meant by guidance and counselling? How is the material to be selected for review?

Considering that this is a review of research on a substantive topic and not a critique of research itself, it would be inappropriate to dwell on the first of these questions. But some attention to it is necessary, because if strict criteria were to be applied, the list of research reports on guidance and counselling in New Zealand would be shorter than the one compiled here.

Answering his own simple question, 'What is research?', the simple and acceptable answer by Tuckman (1978) was that it is a systematic attempt to provide answers to questions. Less acceptable, however, was one of his five characterisations of the research process - empirical - at least in the strong sense in which he elaborated it. Empiricism in this sense is not, in my view, a necessity for research in education generally or guidance and counselling in particular. In support of this contention I shall later argue that some of my own work should count as research, although it would not meet Tuckman's stipulation. At this preliminary stage, I should like to draw support from a paper by Nuthall (1975).

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Advocating variety rather than stereotype in our concepts of educational research, he proposed five major categories of research activity - informative, evaluative, innovative, explanatory, and analytic. In fairness, it should be said that Tuckman's own research contributions and his own explanations of research do in a sense encompass all of Nuthall's views. What is attractive about Nuthall's ideas and daunting about Tuckman's is the possibility that worthwhile educational research need not involve the management of a complex enterprise involving statistical analyses of hard data. Research needs to be connected with reality, and sensible answers to real questions may well depend upon painstaking data collection, but there is also a need for research of other kinds.

The review that follows reflects a broad rather than a narrow view of what constitutes research in guidance and counselling. Indeed it will be obvious that some of the material extends beyond even the generous boundaries set by Nuthall. In this first major review of a fast-growing field it seemed important to take a wide sweep of the literature. Included therefore are not only reports of tests of hypotheses based on hard data, and the typical behavioural analysis designs, but also reports of surveys and evaluations based on data of varying degrees of 'hardness', as well as comments and recommendations arising from both reflections on experience and survey findings.

The second preliminary task is to try to define guidance and counselling as these terms are understood in education and related services in this country. Guidance and counselling are provided in other than educational settings, and it is difficult to distinguish them from social and community work and psychotherapy, and from various other kinds of helping such as teaching, remedial work, advising, supervising, pastoral care, nursing and paramedical therapies. Although the older term, guidance, is still widely and appropriately used in education, it seems in general to be losing popularity compared with the related term, counselling. Many people in different professions now claim that they do counselling, and the term is becoming part of more and more job titles and descriptions. This makes it difficult to determine exactly what the terms guidance and counselling refer to and who performs those activities.

For present purposes some recent statements originating within New Zealand may be helpful:

> When we speak of guidance we shall have in mind all the influences in a school that bear on choices and decisions that pupils make in respect of their own personal, educational and vocational concerns... We see guidance as a network of influences - some of them formal, others informal and incidental - which, taken together, reflect a school's awareness of its responsibilities to its pupils as persons.
>
> (Department of Education, 1971, pp.4-5)

> Counselling is both a process and a relationship. It is a process by which persons evaluate themselves, make choices, and decide on courses of action that are consistent with those choices. This process brings counsellors and their clients into relationships requiring trust and understanding.
>
> (Department of Education, 1971, p.5)

> Counselling is a dialogue in which one person helps another who has some difficulty that is important to him or her. It may be psychotherapeutic or guiding or problem solving and may be practised under a counselling agency or in the context of other professional work or by trained volunteers.
>
> (Nuthall, 1978, p.3)

> The term counselling is used here to describe the various techniques and methods by which people can be helped to understand themselves better and to be more effective... counselling techniques have wide applicability... the expert counsellor is seen to have at his disposal a range of methods... Each method counts as counselling when certain other conditions of the relationship are met. These conditions are of an ethical nature and include the following: a higher degree of confidentiality than is normally expected of, say, teachers; an insistence on the voluntary nature of the relationship; and an emphasis on the personal responsibility of the client for her own behaviour.
>
> (Munro, Manthei and Small, 1979, p.1)

The third preliminary task is to stipulate further the criteria applied to the selection of materials. It was decided to limit these to what had originated within New Zealand from 1970 to 1979 inclusive. Materials were to be retrievable in the sense of being produced in a form which could be obtained and read. These consisted of theses and research papers deposited in university libraries or

departments, articles published in New Zealand and overseas journals, and monographs published by various organisations. As implied in discussing the other two preliminary tasks, the selection of articles within those criteria still posed problems. Both in theory and practice, the boundaries of guidance and counselling cannot easily be set. It is likely therefore that there will be both overlaps with other fields surveyed in this series, and gaps between the fields.

The time limit of 1970 was set partly for the convenience of marking off the decade ending in 1979, and partly because it was close to an important time in the history of guidance and counselling in New Zealand. In 1968 the Department of Education announced a plan for a more rapid expansion of guidance and counselling in secondary schools than hitherto, and in 1969 the first official policy for such services was released. These changes seemed to prompt many practical changes and also various investigations, reflections, and discussions - systematic and unsystematic. The benchmark of 1970 also lies close to the end point of Winterbourn's history of guidance services. So far as I am aware, of the studies published prior to 1970 only four were left unmentioned by Winterbourn. Of these, two were closely related to guidance and counselling (Shouksmith and Taylor, 1964; Buxton and Small, 1966), and two were less closely related (Parkyn, 1959, 1967; Small, 1966).

Historical Studies

A number of the reports reviewed referred to early developments in guidance and counselling before introducing current issues, but three studies were almost entirely historical in emphasis (Dawson, 1972; Sutch, 1972; Winterbourn, 1974). Of these, the last was clearly the most valuable. Winterbourn was himself closely connected with the beginnings of guidance and in his retirement he had access to important primary sources. This comprehensive and detailed study is essential for a full understanding of present provisions.

General Surveys, Recommendations, Criticisms

The 24 items in this group divided conveniently into an earlier group of 15 (1970-74) and a later group of 9 (1975-79). The major document in the earlier period was the Renwick Report (*Guidance in Secondary Schools Report of a Working Party*, Department of Education, 1971) often known as the Working Party Report. Besides its official sponsorship, it was

notable in that it rested its recommendations upon a comprehensive survey of schools' guidance and administrative arrangements - both traditional and emerging. One result was that the notion of a guidance network became popularised. This term seemed preferable to the view of guidance services emanating solely from a guidance counsellor, as was implicit in previous official policy. Six items from this early period were comments on the Renwick Report (Kelly, 1972; Meates, 1972; Mundy, 1971; Post-Primary Teachers Association, 1974; Print, 1972; Webster, 1972). These evaluations were generally favourable, the main criticisms being against the proposed change of title from 'guidance counsellor' to 'guidance teacher' and the de-emphasis of personal counselling. Another three items, all from the Educational Development Conference, strongly recommended the expansion of guidance services at all levels of education (Educational Development Conference 1974a and 1974b; Boyd and Panckhurst, 1974). No obvious consequences followed these activities. Five other contributions consisted of varied assessments and recommendations which likewise made little impact (Webster, 1970a; Small, 1970a and 1970b; Department of Education, 1973; Melville and Hermansson, 1974). Webster's article deserves special mention, however, because of its remarkably prescient view of major issues in guidance and counselling in New Zealand secondary schools.

In the period 1975-79 two major works appeared, the McCombs Report (*Towards Partnership*, Department of Education, 1976) and the Johnson Report (*Growing, Sharing, Learning*, Department of Education, 1977), each recommending the expansion and strengthening of guidance services. The latter was the more controversial, but critics approved of the proposals about guidance and counselling, while arguing that they were too generalised (Devaliant, 1978; Hermansson and Bernstone, 1978; Post-Primary Teachers' Association, 1979). Of the remaining items, Small (1976; 1979) contributed two general reviews, the latter to an international survey, Crawford (1976) urged, as did the Johnson Report, more specific provisions for guidance within intermediate schools, and Glynn (1976) presented challenging plans for student self-management in secondary schools.

Descriptions and Evaluations of Services

At the beginning of the decade three contributors described guidance provisions as they existed in their own schools in the late sixties, and made a variety of recommendations (Wadsworth, 1970; Donaldson, 1971;

Print, 1971). Later, two major surveys were organised by the Department of Education as evaluations of the 'pilot' schools (later to be called 'network schools') which were established in 1974 and 1975 with additional intramural and extramural provisions for guidance and counselling. Panckhurst (1975) reported on the setting up, organisation, and effects of the programmes in the first five schools. Following an examination through questionnaires and interviews of teachers' and students' involvements and attitudes, it was recommended that the scheme be continued and extended. The greatest needs, Panckhurst believed, were for improvements in consultation and communication, more cooperation with support staff, better use of specialist staff, and increased staff training and involvement. Using similar procedures, Oliver (1976) conducted a second evaluation of these same schools and added a baseline evaluation of the next five. Topics included social and vocational education, discipline, use of supporting services, types of student problems encountered, and the use of guidance time. His conclusions and recommendations were similar to Panckhurst's, but with a stronger emphasis on the need for staff training. He concluded that attitude changes in staff and students could not be attributed alone to the extra guidance provisions. It is regrettable that neither of these two reports is readily available.

Two other items in this section also gave detailed information about guidance services in secondary schools. Newport (1977) surveyed five schools, asking principals, counsellors and students to describe and evaluate various aspects of the services. It was found that most student problems were educational and vocational, that female students were more likely to seek counselling, and that among older students, advice was more often sought from friends and parents than from counsellors. Small (1976) summarised work records gathered by three guidance counsellors - Strang (1974) and Wadsworth (1970), referred to elsewhere in this review, and Munro, whose previously unpublished data constitute perhaps the most detailed records in any literature on this subject. In fact, it is so detailed that it is impossible to interpret concisely. Table 1 gives a revised and updated account of the material published by Small (1976), although a heavily edited and misleading version appeared in Small's 1979 article.

Table 1: An Analysis of One Guidance Counsellor's Activities at Papanui High School 1970-1978

Part I : Casework

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978
Total School Roll as at 1st March		1075	1110	1148	1158		1280	1279	1341
Guidance Personnel	1 G.C. 1 Boys C.A.		1 Guidance Counsellor 1 Boys Careers Advisor 8 Tutors				1 G.C. 1 G.T. 1 Boys C.A. 8 Tutors	2 Guidance Counsellors 2 Guidance Teachers 4 Deans (Senior Admin. Staff)	
								Full Network	
Total Number of Cases	177	241	271	242	212		262	232	209
Boys % of Total	20.5%	40%	9.6%	15.7%	9%		14.5%	18.5%	17.2%
Girls % of Total	79.5%	81%	90.4%	84.3%	91%		85.5%	81.5%	82.8%
% Self-Referral for Initial Interview	61.0%	67.2%	68.6%	66%	78%		73.6%	80.6%	86.1%
Counselling Cases (Educational, Personal)	99	118	132	118	82		102	94	105
Boys % of Total	36%	40%	20%	32%	18%		36%	30%	20%
Girls % of Total	64%	60%	80%	68%	82%		64%	70%	80%
Self-Referral Initial Interview %	28%	33%	36%	36%	44%		33%	52%	75%
Self-Referral Subsequent Interviews %	66%	49%		69%	81%		78%	80%	91%
% Cases Senior School F5-7	-	25.5%	20.5%	13.5%	16%		28.5%	35%	45.7%
% Cases Junior School F3-4	-	74.5%	79.5%	86.5%	84%		71.5%	65%	54.3%
Number of Interviews Per Case									
One	37%	35.5%	61%	54%	58.5%		23.5%	42.5%	54.3%
Two-Four	39%	44%	28.5%	34.7%	31.7%		28.5%	41.5%	30.5%
Five or More	24%	20.5%	10.5%	11.3%	9.8%		48%	16%	15.2%
Parent Interviews	17	23	22	24	20		31	41	25
Home Visits	4	24	12	8	9		7	9	4 plus family counselling 1978 only

COUNSELLOR ON UNIVERSITY TRAINING COURSE

Table 1: An Analysis of One Guidance Counsellor's Activities at Papanui High School 1970-1978

Part II : Consultation

	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978
Consultations with Agencies (e.g. Psych. Service, Social Welfare, etc.)	48 meetings or phone	85	103	101	64		92	63	42
Analysis of Needs	6 meetings	4 meetings		4 meetings	16 meetings		27 meetings	48 meetings Guidance Cte. Liaison Cte. Admin.(Eve.)	61 meetings
Implementing Plans									
Classification of New Entrants	21 hours	20 hours	24 hours	20 hours	20 hours			10 hrs(shrd)	7 hours
Visits: Contributing Schools	12 hours	10 hours	30 hours	25 hours	29 hours		29 hours	5 hours	4 hours
F3 Orientation Programme		13 hours	13 hours	15 hours	15 hours		16 hours	17 hours	9 hours
Reorganisation of Courses	4 hours	14 hours	4 hours	4 hours	2 hours		1 hour	9 hours	1 hour
Mother Help, Reading, Groupwork					14 hours		3 hours		
After School Club F3 Boys					52 hours				
Group Counselling					73 periods		18 periods	8 periods	20 periods
Behaviour Modification							14 hours	8 hours	5 hours
Social Education Groupwork								38 hours	43 hours
Consultations with Staff	no record	39	31	51	88		130	121	79
In-Service Training - Staff				18 hours (tutors)			17 hours	(leadership)	
							17 hours (tutors)	48 hours	2 hours
- Regional							16 hours (Social Ed.) (Continuing Edu.)		12 hours (Counsellor)
Dip.Ed. (Guidance) students			30 hours	48 hours	36 hours		28 hours	29 hours	31 hours
Other students							18 hours	19 hours	14 hours
Community Lectures & P.T.A.s	2 hours (P.T.A.)	13 hours (P.T.A.) (lectures)	4 hours (lectures)	4 hours (lectures)	7 hours (P.T.A.) (lectures)		4 hours (lectures)	4 hours (P.T.A.)	17 hours (P.T.A.) (lectures)
Other Parent Interviews	no record	43	33	29	31		45	30	27

COUNSELLOR ON UNIVERSITY TRAINING COURSE

Table 1: An Analysis of One Counsellor's Activities at Papanui High School 1970-1978

Part III : Teaching

		1970*	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978
Social Education	Form 3	110 periods	121 periods	147 periods	68 periods	27 periods		3 periods		
	Form 4		72 periods						38 periods	43 periods
	Form 5		2 periods							
Liberal Studies -	General		2 periods							6 periods
Study Skills	Form 5		15 periods			3 periods		5 periods		
	Form 6		5 periods							
Career	Form 4				15 periods			30 periods		
	Form 5							17 periods		35 periods
	Form 6 & 7							10 periods	30 periods	30 periods
Social Studies	Form 3					140 periods				
Remedial English								10 periods		30 periods
Liberal Studies Volunteer Service Within								31 periods	36 periods	
Liberal Studies Interpersonal Skills										48 periods

Notes

1. 1 Period = 40-45 minutes 1970-76. Thereafter = 1 hour.
2. Form 4 Social Education 1971 Classroom-based content-oriented. 1977-78 group work 2 themes: Knowing Myself, Getting on with Others.
3. Social Studies teaching undertaken 1974 because of a staff shortage - slow learner class 8 periods a week. 6 Social Studies, 2 Social Ed.
4. Form 5 Class Teaching programme 1976 low stream only. 1978 9 week unit for all 5th forms begun.

* Term 1 & 2 only

However, perhaps the most significant article in this section was that of Thomas, Pohl, Presland, and Glynn (1977). They described how the members of the Mangere Guidance Unit achieved their aim of providing a behaviour analysis approach to handling behaviour and learning problems, and assisting students, teachers, and parents with the development and maintenance of adaptive behaviour. The programme assisted individuals, groups, and whole classes, and also provided in-service training for class teachers.

Roles and Functions of Personnel

Three contributions to this section consisted of comparisons between two types of personnel and made suggestions about their roles and functions - psychologists and counsellors (Brew, 1970), counsellors and careers advisers (Dawson, 1973), and teachers and psychologists (Bowler, 1979). Small (1978c) gave a theoretical analysis of three possible views of guidance counsellors, Duley (1979) explained his role as a 'careers officer', and Byrnand (1976) analysed the results of a questionnaire survey of 27 guidance teachers.

Two masters theses were the most significant works in this section, each being based upon high returns from national surveys. Strang (1974) analysed the settings, attributes, and role behaviours of 85 percent of guidance counsellors, and examined relationships between these factors. McDiarmid (1979) sought to determine the perceptions of the guidance counsellor's role by analysing questionnaires from 93 percent of counsellors and their principals. Role overload for counsellors, and lack of purpose and poor definition of the aim of guidance programmes were major problems. Other problem areas were conflicts of interests, differences in role expectations, and differences in evaluation of the importance of certain activities.

Empirical Studies of Educational Guidance

Four studies in this category focused on fourth and fifth form students. Webster (1970b) published the results of an experimental study showing social and intellectual gains following a special intervention with a fourth form class for two terms. However, the statistics and deductions were strongly criticised by Livingstone (1971). In a correlational study of fourth and fifth form secondary school students, Ballard (1972)

showed that their educational aspirations and expectations were closely related to the expectations they perceived significant others held for them. An attitude scale used in this study appeared separately (Ballard, 1974). Testing four months apart, Tuck (1972) found that fifth form boys' estimates of their future School Certificate performance became more realistic, although, as hypothesised, those with unrealistically high (or low) vocational aspirations tended to over-estimate (or under-estimate) their abilities. According to Prenter and Stewart (1972) in their study of fourth form girls, high vocational aspiration was related to high intelligence, superior classroom performance, and high socio-economic status. Low aspiration was related to membership of a family with more than four children, and, with low ability girls, their mother's occupational status.

Reviving earlier studies by Parkyn (1959 and 1967) and Small (1966), but using computerised multivariate analyses, Cooper (1971) confirmed Small's findings: the most important ingredients in university student performance were prior academic success, general scholastic aptitude, and reading skills. Palmer (1972) surveyed 429 university students to discover information related to the transition from school, and concluded that more information and guidance were needed for students, schools, and parents. The sample tended to support a year in Form VII as a preparatory period.

Howell (1974) investigated suspension and expulsion as a means of dealing with behaviour problems, gathering information by means of interviews with school principals. She concluded that these were undesirable measures and recommended that guidance and counselling facilities be expanded.

Three research projects sought to evaluate guidance and counselling by questioning students. O'Connor (1978) compared student perceptions and use of guidance services at two schools. Using pre- and post-tests of three classes of fourth form boys, Turnbull (1978) evaluated the social education programme at his school. In a 'blind' study, Wilson (1976) evaluated counselling sessions by comparing prior expectations and subsequent evaluations with guidance counsellors' views of their own performance.

Two contributions were published overseas. As a means of aiding the interpretation of differences between scores that an individual might get on two standardised tests, Tuck (1974) devised a relatively simple statistical procedure. Sepie and Keeling (1978) found that, among Form I students, underachievement in mathematics was more closely associated with mathematics anxiety than with either test or general anxiety. They suggested that desensitisation could help these underachievers.

Principles and Elements of Counselling

In this section three contributions were general descriptions of counselling and its values (Bryant, 1972; Flower, 1974; Simpson, 1976). Two writers made substantial contributions to the literature by focusing on the problems that arise when middle-class Pakehas try to help institutionalised delinquent adolescents (Hermansson, 1971) and people from various Polynesian cultures (Hermansson, 1974; Metge and Kinloch, 1978). Their work showed an acute awareness of the difficulties of influencing or even understanding people from other cultures in counselling settings.

Another three items had in common the aim of specifying the elements of counselling for training purposes. From the counsellor training programme at the University of Canterbury, Munro, Manthei, and Small (1979) took a broad view of counselling, but in three central chapters they also followed a microcounselling format using examples and exercises. The manual from Massey University by Hermansson and Bernstone (since deceased) (1977), was strongly in the Carkhuff tradition of counsellor training, supplemented by techniques derived from behavioural, transactional analysis, and gestalt approaches. These two manuals were developed from the experience of their respective authors and from informal evaluations of school guidance counsellors and vocational guidance counsellors. From the field of social work at Victoria University of Wellington, Jory (1978) went further than the other two in providing a formal evaluation of the effectiveness of a microcounselling programme in training probation officers, and social welfare institutional staff.

Theories and Principles of Vocational Guidance

In support of the Working Party's Report, Small (1973) held that the principles of vocational guidance provide the most satisfactory rationale for secondary school guidance programmes. He attempted to refute arguments against vocational guidance before advancing positive reasons. In view of the rapid developments in the field since then, the need for such an argument now seems odd. Webster (1976) defined career education comprehensively as preparation not merely for occupation but for life. He discussed key factors in vocational development and argued for an educational rather than a counselling perspective and for the development of a career education programme.

Descriptions of Careers Programmes

The eight items in this category show clearly the shift in emphasis from a few general concerns about preparation for employment (three items before 1975) to specific mention of unemployment and consequences for schools (five items in 1979). Golightly (1973) evaluated the career guidance systems of three schools, categorised as 'traditional', 'guidance conscious', and 'vertical form'. Greensill (1974) described a pre-vocational course for third-year secondary students who were not seeking School Certificate, and concluded that they were as a result more easily able to find permanent employment. Montanjees (1974) described and evaluated a careers programme organised in two schools and concluded that self-knowledge had increased among the students, but that few gained any vocational knowledge.

The most general of the later reports was that of Baker (1979) who discussed criticism that schools were not preparing their pupils for employment. Three other contributors described particular programmes of work exploration and pre-employment designed to help in gaining employment or adjusting to unemployment. Petersen (1979) described a course that began in the third form and became more specific in senior classes. Bedford (1979) showed how lower-ability fifth formers could be helped to cope with a period of unemployment that would be expected for them. An older age-group (15-19 year olds) was catered for in a six weeks pre-employment course described by Devaliant (1979). It was regarded as successful in terms of both students' finding employment and community support for the venture.

Empirical Studies in Vocational Guidance

In this category were a number of studies which showed considerable research skill. Early in the period Baldock (1971) published her analysis and interpretation of the factors which influence the vocational choice of adolescents, based on 3,773 14 year old boys and a random sample of 780 of their parents. Considerable discrepancy was found between the national ideology of equal opportunity and objective reality: social background was the most important factor in vocational choice.

A group of five reports were essentially empirical tests of typologies and theories of vocational choice. Longley (1972) questioned third and fifth form students twice, 104 days apart, in an attempt to assess the usefulness of Super's concept of vocational maturity. He found some warrant for it, but raised many questions. In an experimental study with two groups of fifth form students, Newbold (1975) measured changes in vocational maturity attributable to two terms experience in a work exploration class. Tests and interviews suggested that changes had occurred but a questionnaire did not confirm this. In a longitudinal study following fifth form boys until one year after leaving school, Tuck (1976) tested Super's theory that entry into a career is part of a developmental process. He found the proposed indices of vocational maturity much less useful than the boys' educational attainments and aspirations, and then analysed the nature of developmental theories in the social sciences.

Near the end of the decade Keeling and Tuck (1978 and 1979) began publishing a series of studies of the usefulness of Holland's occupational typology, focusing on scoring procedures and sex differences. These researchers were then engaged in developing a version of Holland's Self-Directed Search procedure which would encourage more client and counsellor activity and interaction in the process of vocational choice.

Another group of studies focused on vocational guidance interviews. Sparrow, McDonald, and Hesketh (1978) found that in terms of expectations, motivation, and self-evaluation, most clients at one centre were helped. Similar conclusions were reached by Garton (1979) following an evaluation at another centre: most clients found the service satisfactory, if not entirely corresponding with their expectations of it. Brook (1977) used

a repertory grid to determine the perceptions that 15 to 16 year old students had of vocational counsellors, and concluded that to be effective the latter needed skill, knowledge, prestige, warmth, and understanding.

Three reports examined the transition from school to work. Crawford (1972) studied relationships between vocational guidance, leavers' choices, and labour force participation rates in a large city, and concluded that vocational guidance was needed to counteract the movement of potential employees away from the city. Sass and Sass (1978) described the first-year work adjustments of the leavers from a large school. McEwan (1972) and McEwan and Tuck (1973) carried out a more precise study of work attitudes, job satisfactions and attitudes to school of a large group of first-year trade apprentices and technical trainees. Notable differences were apparent between the two groups: technicians found school more interesting and relevant to their career than did apprentices, but the latter found their work more interesting and satisfactory than did the technicians. Most school leavers expected more vocational guidance than was given, and those who stayed longer at school were the more critical.

Empirical Studies of the Vocational and Social Adjustment of Exceptional Children and Youth

The results of two theses were reported in this category. Thompson (1973) surveyed 80 slow learners aged 16, their parents and their employers, and found that most had a haphazard method of occupational choice and no work experience before leaving school. Major changes were recommended. Wilden (1974) interviewed 85 former experience class students, their parents, and their employees, and also consulted school and Psychological Service records. It was concluded that most students had made satisfactory vocational and social adjustments, and that experience class programmes were satisfactory.

Four studies, all connected with work by Wilton, were published overseas. In the first of these Wilton and Cosson (1977) compared the employment and adjustment of three groups of mildly retarded adults with a group of adults classified at secondary school as slow learners. The

mildly retarded groups had made poorer vocational and social adjustments, and it was concluded that special education and after-care provisions were inadequate. Stewart and Wilton (1978) surveyed the post-school adjustments of intellectually handicapped school leavers, focusing on institutionalisation, sheltered employment and community adjustment, and related these variables to sex, parental choice, and mobility factors. In two related studies Vincent, Wilton, and Keeling (1979a and 1979b) examined the content of current work experience programmes in four secondary schools and compared their outcomes in terms of open employment, sheltered employment, employment status, job search skills, job changes, and wage levels.

Recommendations on Behavioural Approaches to Guidance

Perhaps the outstanding feature of the period under review was the enormous and deserved popularity of behaviourism as an intervention model. As a result those faced with problem behaviour and educational failure in children and adolescents were encouraged to look for new ways of dealing with such difficulties - often with dramatic improvements as a consequence. In the professional literature and in educational and welfare institutions, behavioural principles became almost commonplace. Much credit for this must go to Glynn at Auckland: directly or indirectly he was responsible for a large amount of varied, imaginative and useful work of a very high standard. In turn, Glynn has generously acknowledged (Glynn and McNaughton, 1978, p.161) the contribution of Church's stimulus to student projects in Canterbury's *Educational Research Newsletter*, now virtually a behavioural publication.

Most studies in this category were grouped together because they strongly commended the use of behaviour analysis procedures in guidance, counselling, and classroom control of disruptive behaviour. Research data were cited in support of recommendations, and most authors expressed hopes that teachers, counsellors, and psychologists would have closer acquaintance with and commitment to these procedures. (Thomas and Adams, 1971; Thomas, 1971; Fry, 1974; Cashmore, 1974; New Zealand Educational Institute, 1975; Throll and Ryan, 1976; Glynn and McNaughton, 1978; Sanders, 1978).

Behaviourists often encounter resistance, but seldom do objectors express themselves in writing. Only one item was critical of the behavioural model. Small (1978b) contended that there had been insufficient conceptual analysis of the tenets of behaviourism, especially in explaining precisely what happened when changes occurred. Using two similar case studies as illustrations, he critically examined two main approaches to explaining human behaviour, and suggested ways of encouraging fuller explanations of changes.

Recommendations on Special Needs

The nine items in this section were classified into two groups. The first group (Maurer and Dawson, 1971; Barney, 1972; Post-Primary Teachers' Association, 1973; Weblin, 1978; Codd, 1979) made a wide variety of recommendations that would help students with special difficulties - early intervention, parent counselling, the use of special services, better staffing of schools, meeting needs for recognition and self-esteem, remedial education, individual and group counselling, the use of resource rooms, and peer tutoring.

In the second group (Church, 1975, 1978; Glynn, Thomas and Wotherspoon, 1978; Codd, 1978) there was a more explicit adherence to behavioural principles. For example, Church (1978) listed and explained seven teaching skills for meeting the needs of disturbed students, while the other three items likewise showed how behavioural programmes could assist in providing better guidance.

Empirical Studies of Behavioural Technology in Classrooms

Even apart from the many reports of projects in the Canterbury *Educational Research Newsletter* since 1975, the number of items in this category was impressive. Since Glynn's article (1970) was done in Canada, it does not strictly qualify for citation, but because it was so often referred to in research reports, it was included here. Besides this, there were 32 items, including theses, some of which were later converted into journal articles. Since there is a separate review of behavioural analysis research, no attempt will be made to analyse these contributions further. Those included were: Ashe (1971); Ballard and Glynn (1975); Coleman (1975); Coleman and Blampied (1977); Ellery (1974); Ellery, Blampied and Black (1975); Fry (1973); Fry and Thomas (1976); Glynn and Quinnell (1971); Glynn and Thomas (1974); Glynn, Thomas and Shee (1973); Glynn, Wotherspoon and Harbridge (1976);

Jackson (1973); Jackson and Glynn (1974); Johnston (1977); Lewis (1973); McNaughton (1974); McNaughton (1975); Marsh, C.R. (1976); Marsh, J. (1975); Nepe (1976); Palmer (1975); Ringer (1973); Roche (1974); Sanders (1976); Serjeant (1974); Shee (1971); Singh (1978); Streat, Page and Werry (1972); Thomas, Presland, Grant and Glynn (1978); Wilson (1976); Wotherspoon (1974).

The inclusion of behaviour analysis reports under guidance and counselling was justified because of the high probability that such programmes would be implemented by guidance personnel, especially guidance counsellors and educational psychologists.

Teaching Social Skills

Out of the two fields of behaviour analysis and microcounselling, interest is rising in attempts to teach social skills. Kean (1975) described a successful programme undertaken at a kindergarten with six year old autistic twin boys who were subsequently accepted at their local primary school. Wadsworth (1979) gave an account of an attempt to teach interpersonal relationship skills to young inmates of a prison, and gave evidence of the programme's helpfulness. The widespread enthusiasm for assertiveness training also issued in a publication (Manthei, 1979). This handbook distinguished between assertiveness and aggression, and provided a commentary, discussion topics, and exercises on assertive skills, dealing with criticism, and communicating effectively. Manthei (1978) also constructed and analysed a measure of assertiveness developed from the literature and from her own experience in training adult volunteers. By showing, in a sample of 300 males and females, the presence of a general factor loading on 48 items in a 60-item scale, she provided evidence of a unitary trait, contrary to a conclusion in a comprehensive review (Rich and Schroeder, 1976).

Counselling with Parents

The nine items in this group all showed how parents could be helped to overcome severe behaviour problems of children within the home. In three cases the problem was elimination: in four months Cashmore (1976) corrected severe soiling; Harvey (1976) reinstated defecation in 48 days; and Singh (1976) cured soiling in 18 days. Five studies

were essentially reports of successfully controlling aggression, temper tantrums, and autism (Bruce, 1970; Fry and Barrer, 1974; Saunders, 1973; Singh, 1978; Small, 1978a). In the ninth instance Fry (1977) taught parents how to use token reinforcement to teach reading at home to 30 primary school children retarded in reading. There was considerable improvement in the children's performance and strong parental interest and cooperation. Behaviour analysis procedures were common to all nine studies.

Counselling in the Community

Two items in this section described the use of counsellors and social workers in medical practices, and the special contributions they made (Lowe and Rainey, 1974; Harray, 1975). Another four contributions described the aims and functions of Youthline telephone counselling services and some of the needs and problems presented by callers (Henley, 1972; Simpson, 1974; Donnelly, 1974; Hattie, 1975). In each case it was concluded that a useful service was either needed or being given. Two other items consisted of collections of papers on the welfare needs of two large cities, with frequent references to guidance and counselling services (Piesse and Lardner, 1974; Wellington City Council, 1977). Raeburn (1973) argued for the use of behaviour therapy methods by social workers in the community, and discussed appropriate cases and suitable programmes.

The outstanding contribution in this section, and indeed a notable contribution to the recent literature, was the report of Nuthall's research (1978) into the counselling resources, training programmes, and needs of a large city. Besides defining counsellors carefully, she provided a census of counsellors working in 68 voluntary agencies and an estimate of their weekly hours of service.

Directories of Community Resources

Finally, the following directories were identified and they are presented without comment: Australia and New Zealand Student Services Association (1978); Community Forum (1978); New Zealand Department of Education (1978);

Fry (1977); Lake (1977); Pacific Islanders' Educational Resource Centre (1978); Rotary Club of St Kilda (1976); Society for Research on Women in New Zealand Inc. (1975).

Measurement

Attention is drawn to the contribution to research in guidance and counselling from skills in measurement and design. As a result knowledge in the field became more complex and precise. The skills were of two types.

One was traditional, coming from statistics courses, enhanced by experience and training, and encouraged by the literature and by electronics. A number of studies reviewed above were analysed by more complicated methods than was common before 1970 - various types of correlations, regression analyses, factor analyses, analyses of variance. Notable examples were Ballard (1972), Cooper (1971), Tuck (1976), and Sepie and Keeling (1978).

The other kind of skill was that characteristic of behaviour analysis research which requires a limited but very rigid range of formats and procedures. All empirical studies of behavioural technology listed above could be regarded as exemplary. The criteria have been stated as 'applied, behavioural, technological, and analytic' (Glynn and McNaughton, 1978, p.ix). Apart from precisely defining and measuring behaviours, the skill lies in the patterning of baseline conditions with one or more forms of treatment, and then showing results in simple statistics and graphs.

Consultation

Another topic cutting across several of those listed is consultation. This is to be contrasted with casework in which direct help is given to clients, and may be defined as follows: an intervention within a voluntary professional relationship in which a work-related problem is solved by helping clients to deal more effectively with other persons or other aspects of their jobs.

The application of behaviour analysis by researchers *depended heavily* upon involving other people, notably teachers and parents, in change processes. Most of the reports of behaviour analysis could therefore be read as examples of consultation, as also could those classified as counselling with parents. Further research and development work needs to be done on the topic, and it may be, as Glynn, Thomas and Wotherspoon (1978) suggested, that consultation will more obviously become the model for guidance services in future.

Evaluation

What is the relationship between research activities and practical developments in guidance and counselling? Few actual connections are observable, at least in the sense that researchers would probably like to see, namely, that practice would be influenced by research. If the two activities are not entirely separate, then at best the most common feature seems to be that research is an analysis of practice in a post-hoc fashion. It has a critical rather than a formative function.

Guidance and counselling, like education, are practical activities in which most changes are brought about by the pressures of events and the views of practitioners, and seldom as a result of research. This is probably as true of other countries as it is in New Zealand. As Stefflre wryly remarked, 'If we did in the name of counselling only those things which research has proved to be worth doing, we should have a good deal of free time on our hands'. (Stefflre, 1972, p.297). Many of the changes which occur are almost mysterious, and researchers seem unable to suggest or forecast them, or even to monitor and evaluate them while they are happening. Usually all that is possible is subsequent recording that they have happened, and perhaps an evaluation at that point.

A good example is the development of guidance networks. As secondary schools began to get larger in the late sixties, it became necessary for management and administrative reasons to organise schools differently. By the time the Working Party Report had appeared, there were enough informal signs of the value of these new organisations to justify confidence in them, and then to capitalise upon them for guidance purposes. The term 'guidance network' was virtually invented, certainly confirmed, by the Working Party, and the role of researchers was then to catch up with the new practices by descriptive and evaluative studies.

Another example comes from the Psychological Service. At the beginning of the seventies there began to emerge a mode of providing services which was later called 'consultation'. Essentially this meant that psychologists began assessing problems in the environments where they were occurring. The move was a good one, and researchers and teachers of counsellors and psychologists subsequently took it up. Perhaps it hardly matters that it began partly as an economic measure and partly as a means of reducing resistance to the medical model of being interviewed in a clinic. But it does illustrate the conservative nature of research in education.

A third example of change which seems to occur independently of research is the way in which descriptions of students have come into fashion, increasingly with clinical connotations. 'Culturally deprived', 'underachieving', and 'emotionally disturbed' did not go very far in this direction, but 'school phobia' did. Not long ago, it would have been a bold psychologist who would have used this term, but very quickly it gained currency among teachers as well as counsellors. The job of the researcher then was to try to distinguish between truants and school phobics, and to suggest different treatment and control strategies for each group.

A counter-example of course is the terminology of behaviour modification which was introduced to practitioners by researchers and others from outside the school. At least some of the resistance to behaviour modification can be interpreted in terms of the forced use of a foreign language.

The boundaries set at the beginning of this paper meant that there was included a heterogeneous mass of material, ranging from general reflections on guidance and counselling in education and the community, to rigorous work published in refereed journals. In this varied material three main areas of weakness can be discerned. With the outstanding exception of Baldock's work (1971), there were no sociological researches into the guidance functions of education of a scale or quality that would permit reasoned debate. In politics and economics the weakness was even more apparent: despite the obvious scope for such work, there was no sign of any research from these perspectives. It

may be that, by default, studies in this field will become the domain of Marxian political economists. The final weakness, elaborated briefly below, was less evident than in the case of the two previous fields: there were signs of highly effective contributions from trained philosophers (Bassett, 1976; Snook and McGeorge, 1978).

These weaknesses directly reflect the extent to which university departments of education, at least since 1945, have been dominated by the psychological foundations of education. The tradition of educational psychology and measurement has been sound in itself but some imbalance has resulted. In defence of departments, it can be said that this imbalance reflected the state of the educational market (or art) internationally. Even in the literature, the modern revival of philosophy of education did not begin until 1955. Sound applications of sociology to education are more recent still, while the contributions of political and economic studies have barely begun.

The wide scope of the literature reviewed may be questioned. Some of the materials were weak by the standard of providing systematic answers to real questions arising from either research or practice. Some amounted to little more than informed comment, and thus fell far short of what is meant by educational research. They were nevertheless worth including as examples of the fact that changes in practice seem to be relatively independent of substantive research. It appears that change results from what may be termed 'developments' - decisions taken as a result of meetings in which balances are struck between deadlines, economic constraints, recent precedents, and general appraisals of the situation. Without approving of actual decisions or of these types of procedure, it is worth remembering that researchers enjoy the luxury of not having to work under such pressures, and that some of the writing was by people close to such 'developments' who wished to record their observations and evaluations.

Other examples of writing which did not qualify as research, but nevertheless as records of 'development work' seemed worth inclusion were the training manuals (Hermansson and Bernstone, 1977; Manthei, 1979; Munro, Manthei, and Small, 1979). As noted above, these works rested

upon informal assessments of what proved most useful in training procedures, as a result of experience. Other descriptive studies of services and programmes could also be termed records of developments rather than research. Such work too is not to be disparaged, for it does describe reality reasonably well and therefore contributes something to an understanding of the 'state of the art'. This is not of course to suggest that more rigorous standards should not be applied in future reviews of this kind.

There were a number of soundly based surveys of services and personnel which yielded high response rates. It is understandable that people should respond willingly to inquiries from the government Department of Education, but returns from individual researchers of 80 and 90 percent suggest other motivations, such as the perceived relevance of the survey to the work of practitioners. This is cause for congratulations. Information flows of this kind are important, even if to experts in statistics the activities seem elementary. It is regrettable nevertheless that the most solid data base of all - the Baseline Survey of a few years ago - was inaccessible to researchers outside the Department. Admittedly, there are problems in dealing with such information but the restrictions, as they were once spelled out to me, were indicative of a lack of trust in researchers. Perhaps the Danks Committee on Official Information will suggest ways round this kind of problem.

In future, surveys may need to be conducted on a more mutual and interactive basis than in the traditional way of questionnaires arriving from the Department or a university, and the information on them being sent off to be crunched by a computer and digested into a research report. There is more at stake here than the feelings and dignity of practitioners. Unless there is interaction, researchers probably do not get to grips with real problems as perceived by practitioners. An actual example of a research of this type involves a questionnaire about certain categories of students which is first completed by all class teachers in a school, followed by a meeting of senior staff which assesses the teachers' responses, followed in turn by a meeting between the researcher and the senior staff. The consensus achieved at this final stage forms the data base from which further research and activities will ensue, with feedback to the staff.

This is not necessarily the model for the future, but if this kind of procedure were followed there would be distinct advantages. Although the data would sometimes be 'softer', they would be more 'real' for they would rest on a stronger consensus having been scrutinised by colleagues. The procedure would also involve the staff more intimately, and through its intermediate steps it would quickly show up ill-conceived, one-shot investigations. Compared with more conventional methods, such procedures require more time, more money, more people, and more organisation - and therefore better justification by researchers.

Proposals for research from practitioners could also be treated in somewhat the same way. In the research affiliate scheme at Canterbury, teachers' research proposals are scanned by university staff and inspectorsbefore assistance and allowances are given, and a staff member and a teacher are paired up. If the proposals were fed back to teachers, a team effort might be stimulated and organised, instead of one teacher and one staff member carrying out one piece of small-scale research. More involvement of more practitioners would lead also to better dissemination of research findings. My informal inquiries suggest that very few teachers read the research findings in such readily available outlets as the *set* series, *Education*, or the Canterbury *Educational Research Newsletter*.

Two areas of research stood out as containing examples of high grade research - vocational guidance and behaviour analysis. I should like now to comment upon these developments briefly.

The main researchers in the former area were Keeling and Tuck, who are now embarked upon a series of studies based upon Holland's typology, some of which are now in press. Their work is planned to culminate in a version of the Self-Directed Search suitable for New Zealand use, and one that will represent an improvement on the original, calling for more activity by and interaction between clients and counsellors.

Is it possible to account for the quality and quantity of this research? The backgrounds of the researchers may give some clues. Both were once vocational guidance officers, both had done masters' level theses in vocational guidance, and both had strong prior qualifications in measurement and then subsequent teaching responsibilities in the same field. As colleagues they were thus enabled and encouraged to develop statistical skills in the Neyman-Pearson tradition and to apply them to vocational guidance. Holland's typology and associated research findings proved to

be richer in possibilities for both research and practice than the earlier developmental theories. Both men, moreover, were connected with the training of school and vocational counsellors, thus gaining further stimulus to their work. More recently the rapid expansion of vocational guidance services has also acted as an encouragement. These factors probably go some way towards explaining the standards achieved.

As noted earlier, in behaviour analysis the outstanding figure is Glynn. In his case the kinds of factors cited about Keeling and Tuck were less in evidence. It is surmised that from a thorough post-graduate training, Glynn developed the motivation and leadership which has been associated with so much excellent research. Without minimising his achievement, I should like to suggest, however, that other factors have also been important in the sheer volume of behaviour analysis research in New Zealand.

In the first place, the procedures of behaviour analysis, although exacting, are essentially simple applications when compared with conventional correlational or experimental research. Furthermore, by assuming the operation of the most elementary causal mechanisms, and indeed by ruling out other possibilities, the theory too is simple, almost to the point of being simplistic. Thirdly, many practical examples are available in the literature giving conclusive proof of quick and dramatic changes in persistent patterns of behaviour.

In light of these attractions, why is the promise of behaviour analysis not being delivered to schools? Glynn referred to 'a large range of political, administrative, and communication problems to be solved'. (Glynn and McNaughton, 1978, p.161). An example of the last kind is that the typical procedures and reports used in behaviour analysis often do not speak to the needs and experience of practitioners. What the consumers want is usually no more than a behaviour change that satisfies them, whereas the researchers want proof positive, via the Baer-Risely-Wolf criteria, that it was the principles of reinforcement alone that effected the change. My reservations about behaviour analysis are partial, not complete, and are explained elsewhere (Small, 1978a and 1978b). But these reservations are symptomatic of the tension that exists - perhaps must exist - between researchers and practitioners.

Thus the earlier point is raised again: there is a need for more mutual and interactive relationships in research.

Two items (Bassett, 1976; Snook and McGeorge, 1978) were not included in the review because they dealt with broader issues than guidance and counselling. However, they deserve notice for two reasons. First, the topics they dealt with were close to the duties and responsibilities of guidance counsellors, and secondly, better than any other items cited, they showed how philosophical analyses can make direct contributions to research and practice in guidance and counselling. They exemplified to empiricists in the psychological tradition how far and how usefully relevant arguments can be developed from what are mainly conceptual rather than empirical bases. There is a need for more work of this kind, perhaps eventually issuing in books like that of Elliott and Pring (1975).

Except for research of the 'development' sort, studies of counselling were meagre. This was due partly to ethical problems, partly to experimental difficulties, and partly to rapid changes in foci of interest. There has been a move away from pretest-posttest studies of the effects of counselling, such as that of Shouksmith and Taylor (1964). The problems are now seen to lie in how to meet the apparent needs of clients rather than how to measure the effects of counselling generally, or even to compare different counselling theories.

For example, there is now more interest in clarifying the effects on clients of certain non-verbal variables, as Hermansson is doing in a doctoral thesis. A major overseas survey of recent research likewise shows the attention being given to such factors in impression formation and influence (Krumboltz, Becker-Haven, and Burnett, 1979). Two unpublished studies at Canterbury are worth mentioning. Over several years R.J. Manthei has shown that distinct changes in counsellors' perceptions and attitudes are associated with the counsellor training course and that these changes persist and increase one year later. Also for several years, I have been using various methods of trying to relate linguistic indicators of client reactions to those of counsellors. My next project is a study of the personal qualities of natural helpers - those parents, teachers, and students whose interpersonal skills are reliably identified by their peers. Until recently the research literature

has provided few examples of studies using low-inference methods, but changes are now evident.

Three topics - consultation, social skills training, and family counselling - seem to be developing fast and to require research. Consultation was earlier contrasted with casework as a method of providing guidance and counselling services. There is a need for a consciousness about consultation so that it is built into training courses and built upon skills in the casework mode of counselling. Behaviour analysis and parent counselling both use consultation, but there is no evidence of research directly on the topic. The teaching of social skills is also capturing interest, especially within set packages or workshops. The production by M. Manthei (1978) of a scale for measuring assertiveness was an important step forward, but more work is needed. The overseas literature on family counselling is expanding rapidly, and handbooks and theses are being produced in this country, but except for Everts' doctoral thesis (unsighted), there has been little formal research. The topic is of some significance because of the number of education service personnel engaging in the work, despite a good deal of official caution about its being beyond the boundaries of schools' responsibilities.

It is appropriate to add a note on sources of and outlets for research. The main sources of the most rigorous research on guidance and counselling were clearly the education departments of the universities. In view of students' thesis requirements and the job specifications of staff, this is not surprising. There were signs of activity by the government Department of Education, but none at all by teachers' colleges. The proposed in-service courses on guidance at teachers' colleges may alter this pattern, although it is relevant to note that university-based research into secondary school guidance and counselling antedated the allocation of counsellor training to universities. University staff have long been expected to do research, whereas this expectation has only recently been proposed for teachers' colleges.

Outlets for research were varied. Some excellent work originating within New Zealand was published in Australia and in the United States of America (but none in Britain), suggesting that local outlets do not meet the requirements of researchers. Without close knowledge of editorial policies, I believe that there are in New Zealand only three strongly refereed journals suitable for guidance and counselling research - *New Zealand Journal of Educational Studies*, *New Zealand Medical Journal*, and *New Zealand Psychologist*. Others with less rigorous standards are *New Zealand Social Work*, *Delta*, *Post-Primary Teachers' Association Journal*, *Education*, and *New Zealand Counselling and Guidance Association Journal*. An upgrading of the standards of the last might create an alternative outlet for rigorous research, but would have the disadvantage of inhibiting the worthwhile contributions of practitioners.

In conclusion I undertake the risk of selecting from the large number of contributions surveyed a short list of the most distinctive and useful items. In alphabetical order they are as follows: Baldock (1971); Ballard (1972); Department of Education (1971); *Educational Research Newsletter* (1968-); Fry (1977); Glynn (1970); Keeling and Tuck (1978, 1979); McDiarmid (1979); Manthei (1979); Munro, Manthei and Small (1979); Nuthall (1978); Oliver (1976); Panckhurst (1975); Small (1978b); Snook and McGeorge (1978); Thomas, Pohl, Presland and Glynn (1977); Webster (1970a); and Winterbourn (1974).

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